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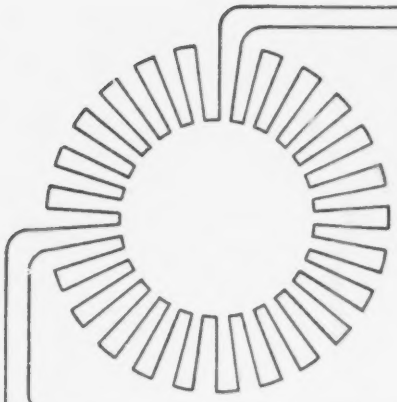

Center for Human Resource Research

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During the 1970s both overall fertility and teenage fertility in the United States declined substantially. Between 1970 and 1978, the live birth rate per 1,000 women between the ages of 15 and 19 declined from 57.4 to 43.6 for whites and from 147.7 to 103.7 for blacks.[1]

This overall decline in youthful fertility may tempt policy makers to downplay the short and longer term consequences of early childbearing. But in many respects the social and economic situation of young mothers has changed in recent years, in many ways for the worse. Although the percentages and numbers of young women having a child has declined, the composition of the group who are having children has altered over the past decade to include more of those least likely to be able to provide for themselves and their children. As we will show, the young mother in 1979 is much more likely either to be enrolled in school or if no longer enrolled, without a high school degree than her 1968 counterpart. In 1979, almost two thirds of young white mothers either were still enrolled in school (probably high school) or else had dropped out of high school as of the month their first child was born compared with about 50 percent for young white mothers in 1968. The comparable statistics for young black mothers in 1979 and 1968 were about 85 percent and 73 percent respectively.[2] This report uses two data sets from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience; the Young Women's cohort who were originally interviewed in 1968, and the Youth Cohort, originally interviewed in 1979.[3] These data, which reflect patterns over an eleven-year period, will be used to show how the

social and economic consequences of early childbearing have changed in recent years. Specifically, we will compare the 1968 and 1979 educational, family, welfare and employment situations of young mothers who are between the ages of 14 and 22 and who have not attended college. As will be shown, young mothers in this age range are disproportionately black and/or not college-bound.

The Data Set

For over a decade, the National Longitudinal Survey of Labor Market Experience of Young Women has been following the same individuals in a national cross-section of women who were 14 to 24 years of age in 1968. The surveys include a wealth of information about the family, education and employment experience of these young women as they move from their early teens to adulthood.[4] The survey initially included about 3,500 white and 1,500 black respondents. Interviews were carried out by the U.S. Bureau of the Census under contract with the U.S. Department of Labor.

In 1979, another longitudinal survey with a new nationally representative youth cohort of over 12,000 young men and women age 14 to 22 was initiated. Interviews with the 1979 cohort will continue at least until 1984; funding comes from the U.S. Department of Labor and interviewing is conducted by the National Opinion Research Center. Interview schedule construction, preparation and distribution of public use tapes and analyses for both the older and new surveys are being carried out by the

Center for Human Resource Research of The Ohio State University with funds supplied by the U.S. Department of Labor.[5] The 1979 data presented in this study are limited to the female respondents in this more recent survey, which includes about 3,400 white, 1,500 black, and 950 Hispanic young women. All data in this report are weighted up to nationally representative totals and nationally representative black and white population components.

This research will compare selected family and personal characteristics for young women who were 14 to 22 years of age in early 1968 and early 1979. The principal focus will be on the relationship between early childbirth and school leaving and some of its socioeconomic consequences. For this reason, all of the analysis (with the exception of that in the section immediately below) will focus on youth who are no longer in school and have not attended college as of the respective 1968 and 1979 survey dates. The analyses will be limited to youth who have left school at least ten months before the survey dates so that we can examine motherhood probabilities in the periods immediately before and after school leaving.

The Educational Mix of Young Mothers

There has been a dramatic change over the past decade in the propensity of young black and white mothers to remain in school. Table 1 indicates the school enrollment and completion status of young women between the ages of 14 and 22 who had a first birth at least ten months before the 1968 or 1979 interview

date. The table shows their status at several points, ranging from 9 months before the birth of the first child to 9 months after the birth. The dominant pattern to be noted is that young mothers of both races were much more likely to remain in school in 1979 than they were in 1968. Changing social mores as well as more liberal school regulations have made it a much more common occurrence for prospective young mothers to remain students. For example, as of five months before the first child's birth about 20 percent of the white mothers-to-be were enrolled in school in 1968 compared with 42 percent for their 1979 counterparts. The black percentages were 45 percent and 70 percent. These data are consistent with other studies which have shown how dramatically attitudes towards sexual activity have changed during this period.[6] The liberalization of social mores has probably made it easier for both married and unmarried young women to have children and remain in school if they desire to do so.

Not surprisingly, the percent enrolled continued declining during the months of pregnancy. However, as of the childbirth month, substantial proportions of black and white mothers were still enrolled in school, particularly in 1979. Overall, about one in four white mothers between the age of 14 and 22 and one of every two black mothers was still enrolled in school as of the month of the first birth; the vast majority were enrolled in high school.

After the birth month, the percent of black and white young mothers enrolled in school continues to decline. However, as of nine months after the birth of the child, the percent still

enrolled is substantial, and much higher in 1979 than in 1968. The percent of white young mothers still in school nine months after the birth increased from 5 to 17 percent over the eleven year period, and black mothers showed a much larger increase, from about 15 percent to close to 40 percent. Thus, one positive consequence of recent social change has been a much greater ability of young mothers to continue their education, albeit most of this enrollment increase has been at the high school level. Only a very small percentage of young women below age 22 are parents while enrolled in college.

The greater ability of young women to stay in high school while pregnant and after giving birth has many social implications. On the positive side, it increases the likelihood of high school completion, the learning of vocational skills and the possibility of college attendance. School attendance ultimately translates into a wider variety of career options and a lesser likelihood of a lifetime of poverty.[7]

On the other hand, these findings strongly suggest the need for expanded family planning programs. While recent changes have made it easier for young mothers to stay in school, parallel changes which would cause young women in high school to avoid having a child are less in evidence. There is evidence that teenage women are sexually more active than they were in earlier periods,[8] and recent literature emphasizes the increasing incidence of very early pregnancies among sexually immature young women.[9] It is much less clear that the means to prevent or terminate a pregnancy is more readily available to young women in

high school in 1979 than in 1968. To the extent that family planning advice is not readily available to these young women, changing norms regarding the appropriateness of having a child while in high school can only lead to a higher birth rate among those young women who are least able to support young children--with considerable cost to the quality of their current educational and career development and, equally important, to their longer term lifestyle intentions.

Table 1 shows clearly that when one focuses on the problems of new mothers in 1979 one is really considering a group who are different in at least one major way from their predecessors in 1968: they are much more likely to be in school. Policy should be geared toward making family planning services more available to young women in school. Once a young woman in high school has become a mother, educational policy must focus on mechanisms to keep the young woman in school. These should include child care assistance and psychological support from school authority figures, because as this report and many others have documented, both the long and short run implications of not getting the high school degree are overwhelmingly negative.

First Births and School Leaving: Trends Over Time

Table 1 has documented how, increasingly, new young mothers may be found among the in-school population, particularly among those who have not completed high school. In addition, as of a point nine months after the first birth, a majority of out-of-school mothers between the ages of 14 and 22 are high school

dropouts.

A major reason for this changing educational mix of young mothers is that non-college bound youth now have a greater probability of having a child while still in high school. Table 2 indicates the percent of non-college bound young women who have had a first birth by various points before and after leaving high school. The data are presented separately by race and high school completion status and were constructed by comparing retrospective data on the date of school leaving with the date of a respondent's first birth, if she had one. The sample is limited to young women who had left school at least 10 months before the survey date so as to obtain accurate estimates of first birth rates where the pregnancy clealy was initiated while the young woman was still in school.[10]

Table 2 shows how the in-school and immediate post-school first birth probabilities have changed over the past decade. The changes have been particularly pronounced for black youth. For white young women who left high school before completing the twelfth year the percent who had a first birth increased from 2.6 to 5.5 percent. In contrast, the percentages for black young women were about 14 percent in 1968 and 29 percent in 1979. Similar racial distinctions may be noted for the high school graduates.

If one compares the childbearing statistics for the different groups at a point nine months after school leaving, significant racial and educational differences in the trend over time may be noted. White high school dropouts and graduates not

attending college are not significantly more likely to have had a child now than was true in the late 1960s--although the childbearing rate is much higher for those who left school before completing high school. For blacks, however, the trend towards increased childbearing in the adolescent years is considerable. By nine months after school leaving, four of every ten black non-college attending high school graduates has had a child, compared with about two of ten for their graduating counterparts in 1968. Almost 60 percent of black high school dropouts have had a child by nine months after school leaving compared with about 45 percent for their dropout counterparts eleven years earlier. Thus, the overall national fertility data showing declines in teenage fertility mask a counter trend among the non-college bound youth, particularly those who are black, in our society. At a point shortly after school leaving, the adult life style options for many of these youth have already been severely constrained.

The rather large increase in the percent of black high school dropouts with a child nine months after leaving school may be due to changing trends in fertility and contraception methods. As already noted, a study highlighted recent increases in the percentages of nonmarried black and white teenagers in metropolitan areas who have had sexual intercourse.[11] This article indicated that between 1976 and 1979, the percent of premaritally sexually active teenagers always using contraception went up slightly and that the percent never using contraception declined significantly for both black and white youth. However,

the point was also made that there has been an increasing recent usage of less efficient "contraceptive" methods such as rythm and withdrawal. The research reported does not permit one to differentiate trends in contraceptive usage by age. However, it is reasonable to conjecture that the younger teenagers were probably those who were not only the least likely to use contraceptives but, in addition, the most likely to use contraceptives inefficiently.[12]

Changes in Characteristics of the Non-College Bound Youth

During the past decade, the long term trend of increasing proportions of youth completing high school and attending college has continued. For example, between 1970 and 1978, the percent of white and black 20 and 21 year old women who were not enrolled in school and had not completed high school declined. For white women the decline was very modest, from 15.1 to 14.5 percent, but for blacks the change was more significant, from about 30 percent to 21 percent.[13]

Because of this decline in the proportion of the youthful population who do not complete high school, we investigated the possibility that the increase in early child bearing of the non-college bound youth might be associated with their being a more "selected out" population compared with all youth their age than had been true in the late 1960s. In particular, because of the significantly higher probability that non-college bound young black women will have a child before completing high school, the possibility of their being from relatively more educationally

disadvantaged backgrounds was also considered.

Table 3 presents information regarding four education-related characteristics for non-college bound youth as well as the same data for all youth between the ages of 14 and 22. More important, the ratios of the characteristics of the white and black women in this study to the characteristics of the overall youth population are also presented. These ratios are more relevant, because they enable us to consider the position of the non-college group relative to all young women. The characteristics include father's mean years of education completed, the percentage of the youths' homes which included reading material such as magazines and newspapers at age 14 and the percentage of respondents who possessed a library card. These characteristics and, in particular, their ratios, have strong face validity as likely meaningful indicators of educational disadvantage, and perhaps as important, post-school employment success.

Reflecting the generally higher level of education attained by more recent cohorts of adults, both the white and black non-college attendees in 1979, but particularly the blacks, come from homes where the father had significantly more education than was true in 1968. In this regard, the young black women have shown the greatest improvement relative to the overall youth population.

With respect to the reading material data, young white dropouts have lost some ground relative to their youthful peers. Black high school dropouts do not appear significantly

worse off than a decade earlier although this is the group who are most likely to have an early birth. In contrast, black high school graduates not going on to college seem to come from more disadvantaged backgrounds, if reading material in the home at age 14 is a reliable gauge of being in the socioeconomic mainstream. In any event, the data do not show any regular or systematic association between increasing fertility tendencies and lower socioeconomic status.

Motherhood, Family Structure, Income Support and Work

We have shown that the young non-college bound woman is more likely now to encounter the problems of motherhood sooner after school leaving or even before school leaving than was true a decade earlier. Unfortunately, for economic and noneconomic reasons, her ability to raise this child may be more difficult in 1979 than in 1968. Both white and black young mothers are less likely to have a husband present in the home in 1979 and thus are forced to fall back to a greater extent on other family support. While we do not have comparable statistics for 1968, very substantial proportions of young mothers in 1979 rely heavily on public transfers. As will be shown, their heavy dependence on welfare is undoubtedly associated with their low involvement in the work force, which in turn reflects their limited job skills, family constraints and generally limited employment opportunities. In addition, these youth are likely to have only minimal knowledge about the workings of the labor market.

The percentage of non-college bound young mothers who either have ever been married or have a husband present in the household has declined dramatically in recent years for all racial and educational groups. As of the 1968 survey date, almost all non-college bound white mothers who had had a child, regardless of whether or not they had completed high school, either were or had been married. As of the 1979 survey date, the ever-married percentages for white dropout and graduate mothers were 86 and 89 percent, respectively. The trend for black young women towards births outside of a marriage was much more dramatic.[14] For black high school dropouts who were mothers the percent who had ever been married declined from 74 percent to 31 percent over the eleven year period, and for black young women with 12 years of school completed the percentages are 68 percent and 43 percent, respectively. The trends reported here are consistent with other studies which show increases in premarital pregnancies among teenagers and a decreasing tendency to legitimize these births.[15]

Reflecting at least in part changing social mores regarding the appropriateness of having a child without being married, the above statistics, on the surface, suggest that young mothers in 1979 may well encounter greater economic difficulty in raising their children than had been true a decade earlier. Statistics on the percentages of currently married women with a husband present, for blacks and whites in 1968 and 1979, are presented in Table 4. The percent of white mothers living with a husband showed a modest but significant decline over the decade; the black graduate and dropout group showed a much more substantial

decline in husband presence. In particular, whereas about 49 percent of black young mothers without a high school diploma were living with a husband in 1968, the percent in 1979 had dropped below 20 percent.

Due to the sharp decline in the presence of husbands, other social and economic support systems become even more important. Table 5 presents the household structure of the 1979 young women, with separate distributions indicated by race, high school completion status and parent status. As already noted, most of the white young mothers are living with a husband. Where a husband is not present, they are either living with parents, other relatives or, for a small percentage, with a male partner.

For the black mothers the situation is fundamentally different. A minority are living with a husband. About 35 percent of the high school graduates are living with their parents and an additional 25 percent are living with other relatives. Fully 45 percent of the high school dropouts are living with other relatives (excluding spouses and parents), and 29 percent are living with their parents. The traditional idea that the extended family provides emotional, financial and child care support for young black mothers is apparently quite accurate.

With minor exceptions, both black and white young mothers not living with a spouse are living with other adult relatives, an observation equally true in 1968. Although the data are not presented here, in the vast majority of comparable families in 1968, where a husband was not present, the woman and her child

were living with other adult relatives. The difference between 1968 and 1979 lies in the changes in the tendencies of young couples to marry and to stay married. To the extent that mothers who have been but are no longer married are able to access child support payments from their ex-spouse, the never-married young mothers, a much more common phenomenon in 1979, are distinctly at a disadvantage. Other issues related to the absence or presence of a husband for the wellbeing of the mother and her child are considerably more complex, although the fatherless family in our society is economically and perhaps psychologically at a disadvantage. To the extent that a husband's income is not available and other economic resources are strained or not available, the only other alternatives for many of these young mothers are employment or welfare. Due to the limited job opportunities and alternate income sources available to these young mothers and their families, many of them must depend on public transfer payments (Table 6). It may be noted that the families of about three quarters of the black mothers without a high school diploma receive income from at least one of the three major sources, aid for dependent children, food stamps and supplemental security income. About 45 percent of the black mothers with a high school diploma receive assistance. The white percentages are much lower, consistent with the greater prevalence of a husband in the white families as well as their greater likelihood of access to income from other wealthier family members.[16]

The large proportions of black and white high school

dropouts who are mothers receiving public assistance may be associated with their inability to find meaningful employment at a livable wage. Table 7 shows that in 1979, young women with children systematically have lower labor force participation rates than nonmothers, with high school dropouts being particularly disadvantaged in this regard. The black high school dropout who has a child has the lowest level of labor force participation. Only about 8 percent of this group are employed and about 80 percent of those seeking work cannot find it. Between 1968 and 1979, the employment situation has deteriorated more for black young women than for whites. White dropouts have had an increase in labor force participation irrespective of the presence of children. For whites this increased labor force participation reflects both increased employment and increased unemployment. Blacks, however, show a drop in labor force participation by those with children and an increase in unemployment among all groups.

The non-college bound group focused on in this research have only limited education and marginal job skills. The jobs which they can get are usually low-paying with limited opportunities for advancement. Frequently, job-associated child care, transportation, and clothing costs absorb a substantial portion of minimum wage earnings. To the extent that welfare assistance can approach or even exceed the after-tax, after-expenses earnings of these young mothers (when they can find jobs!), it is not surprising that employment and labor force participation levels are low. It is not unlikely that the relaxing of

restrictions to governmental assistance over the past decade may have had some impact on the declines in labor force participation among those young women whose "net" income after expenditures would be the lowest.[17]

In addition, the decline in labor force participation for young black mothers without a high school degree reflects a general awareness among this group that jobs are not available; this decline is consistent with the extraordinarily high level of unemployment for black young women, particularly those without a high school diploma. Due to the limited employment opportunities, many of these women with young children are left with no other short-run alternative but public assistance.

Expectations for the Future

In spite of limited educational credentials, employment skills and current employment prospects, the vast majority of these young women--black and white, high school graduate and dropout, mother and nonmother--anticipate that they will be employed when they reach age 35 (see Table 8). This is particularly true for young black women. For all categories of young women, the percent expecting to be working at age 35 has increased substantially since 1968, as it has for all American women.[18] The black dropout, who has the least adequate employment credentials has, at the same time, the greatest prospective employment intentions. The high school dropout with children is in the poorest position with regard to improving her employability over the next few years. Evidence from other

studies indicates that these high school dropouts with children will fare the poorest whether gauged from the perspective of future income or employment,[19] partly because early childbearing is associated with above-average subsequent childbearing[20] (although some recent evidence suggests that this may be less true now than in earlier years).[21] This pattern of continuing childbearing makes it extremely difficult for a woman to gain meaningful employment and training experiences without substantial program intervention; such interventions must of necessity run the gamut from literacy training, guidance regarding how to seek and find employment, occupational training, child care support, family planning assistance, and family support payments.

References

[1]Monthly Vital Statistic Report, Advance Report, Final Natality Statistics, 1978, D.H.H.S. Publication No (PHS) 80-1120, Vol. 29, No. 1, Supplement, April 28, 1980.

[2]This is supported by data from the NLS. The overall percent of 20 and 21 year old women who have never attended college decreased from about 66 to 55 percent between 1968 and 1979 and the percent who had never attended college and were mothers declined from 27 to 23 percent. Reflecting recent increases in the size of the 20 and 21 year old cohorts, the number of 20 and 21 year old women who have not attended college and have a child actually increased from about 900 thousand to 950 thousand between 1968 and 1979.

[3]The young women's cohort of the NLS was initiated in 1968. Additional interviews with the 5,159 respondents have been completed each year between 1968 and 1973, 1975, 1977, 1978 and 1980, with interviews planned at least till 1983. As noted in the text, the youth survey interviews are planned to continue on an annual basis at least till 1984. The 1981 NLS Handbook, which describes all of the surveys in detail, is available free of charge from the Ohio State Center for Human Resource Research.

[4]National Longitudinal Survey Handbook, Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, 1981.

[5]The sample for the 1968 young women's cohort was selected by the U.S. Bureau of the Census and designed to represent the female civilian noninstitutional population 14 to 24 years of age. The 1979 youth cohort sample was selected by the National Opinion Research Center. The young women's sample included an over-representation of blacks and the new youth cohort includes an over-representation of blacks, Hispanics and disadvantaged whites. Appropriate weights were developed by the survey agencies such that the weighted young women's and youth cohorts match the CPS population groups of the same age. For more detail, see the 1980 Handbook, as well as J.R. Shea, et al., Years for Decision, Volume 1, February 1971, Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, Appendix B and M.E. Borus, et al., Pathways to the Future: A Longitudinal Study of Young Americans, Center for Human Resource Research, The Ohio State University, January 1980.

[6]I.L. Reiss and B.C. Miller, "Heterosexual Permissiveness: A Theoretical Analysis," Ch. 4 in Contemporary Theories About the Family, Vol. 1, by W.R. Butt et al.. New York, The Free Press, 1979.

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K.A. Moore, S.B. Caldwell, et al. The Consequences of Early Childbearing: An Analysis of Selected Parental Outcomes Using Results from the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women, The Urban Institute, Washington, D.C., 1977.

[8]M. Zelnick and J.F. Kantner, "Sexual Activity, Contraceptive Use and Pregnancy Among Metropolitan-Area Teenagers: 1971-1979, Family Planning Perspectives, 12: 230, 1980.

[9]L.S. Zobin, J.F. Kantner and M. Zelnik, "The Risk of Adolescent Pregnancy in the First Months of Intercourse," Family Planning Perspectives, 11: 215, 1979.

[10]Obviously, these estimates should be considered as gross understatements of actual pregnancy levels as they include no adjustment for fetal loss, whether voluntary or involuntary. As such this report surely understates the magnitude of the pregnancy--school leaving phenomenon.

[11]Ibid.

[12]M. Zelnick and J.F. Kantner. Op. cit.

[13]U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20, No. 356, Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1979 and 1978, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1980. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Report, Series P20, No. 223, "School Enrollment," October, 1970, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971.

[14]These statistics overstate the proportion of birth which probably occurred within a marriage as the survey date could be several years after the child was born and the marital status relates to ever-married status as of the survey date. The universe here continues to be young women who have left school at least ten months preceding the survey date.

[15]M. O'Connell and M.J. Moore, "The Legitimacy Status of First Births to U.S. Women Age 15-24, 1939-1978," Family Planning Perspectives 12: 16, 1980.

[16]The argument is commonly made that young mothers may avoid marrying in order to maintain access to public welfare funds. These data refute this assumption as regulations in this regard are certainly less stringent in 1979 than in 1968. That is, regulations which encourage the absence of a "man in the household" before some forms of welfare can be obtained are less prevalent now than a decade ago. Thus, on the basis of this criteria alone, one might have anticipated in recent years an increase in the marriage rate among young mothers, not a decline, as has actually occurred.

[17]S. Levitan, Programs in Aid of the Poor. Johns Hopkins

University Press, Baltimore, 1976, p. 37.

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Table 1

Enrollment Status and Educational Attainment of Young Women
Who had a First Birth at Least Ten Months Before Survey Date, 1968 and 1979

	Months Before or After First Birth											
	-9		-5		0		+5		+9		Sample size	
	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	979
White	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	317	413
In School	37.1	56.2	20.1	41.5	9.7	26.6	7.1	21.3	5.1	17.4		
0-11 years	33.9	51.2	17.2	36.5	7.1	21.6	4.9	16.4	3.7	13.5		
12 years & over	3.2	5.0	2.9	5.0	2.6	5.0	2.2	4.9	1.4	3.9		
Out of school	62.9	43.8	79.9	58.5	91.3	73.7	93.0	78.7	94.8	82.7		
0-11 years	21.3	20.5	36.7	30.4	42.1	38.4	43.4	40.9	44.1	42.3		
12 years & over	35.6	23.3	43.2	28.1	49.3	35.1	49.6	37.8	50.7	40.4		
Black	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	219	239
In school	58.5	80.4	44.7	70.0	28.1	55.4	21.8	44.8	14.7	38.8		
0-11 years	56.7	69.3	43.2	59.5	26.6	44.9	20.3	35.8	13.2	30.9		
12 years & over	1.8	11.1	1.5	10.5	1.5	10.5	1.5	9.0	1.5	7.9		
Out of School	41.4	19.6	55.4	30.0	72.0	44.7	78.3	55.1	85.4	61.1		
0-11 years	22.6	11.4	33.6	18.1	41.8	28.8	50.8	35.6	54.6	38.5		
12 years & over	8.8	8.2	21.8	11.9	27.2	15.9	27.5	19.5	30.8	22.6		

SAMPLE: **Women 14-22 years of age at survey date with a birth at least 10 months before that date.** The overall 1968 sample included about 3,100 white and 1,300 black young women between the ages of 14 and 22. The white sample included a Hispanic subset in proportion to their numbers in the population of that age. The 1979 sample included about 1,500 black young women and 5,000 white respondents. The white sample included a full cross-section of 2,500 whites, a special sample of 1,000 disadvantaged white youth and about 1,500 Hispanics. Both the 1968 and 1979 samples in this study are weighted up to racially and ethnically national representative samples of young women 14 to 22 years of age. All the statistics presented in this paper are based on weighted nationally representative data.

Table 2

Percent with a Child at Various Points Before and After Dropping Out or Graduating from High School

Months Before or After School Leaving	White Dropout		Black Dropout		White Graduate		Black Graduate	
	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979
-9 months	1.2	1.7	6.3	16.3	1.4	3.0	4.9	20.7
-5 months	1.2	3.0	6.9	19.0	1.6	4.0	9.1	23.8
School leaving month	2.6	5.5	13.9	28.6	1.6	5.1	9.1	27.6
+5 months	8.8	14.0	28.1	46.4	4.6	8.3	15.4	33.1
+9 months	21.3	24.6	44.1	58.3	8.6	10.7	21.1	40.2
Sample size	289	501	207	152	579	691	167	197

Sample: Women who completed 12 or less years of school and had left school ten or more months before survey date.

Table 3

Selected Characteristics of Non-College Bound Youth Compared With All 14 to 22 Year Olds

	Characteristic								Ratio of subgroup to all 14 to 22 year olds							
	Fathers mean years schooling		% with magazines in home		% with newspapers in home		% with library card		Fathers mean years schooling		% with magazines in home		% with newspapers in home		% with library card	
	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979	1968	1979
All 14 to 22 year olds	10.8	11.8	71.9	65.0	88.6	82.6	76.4	77.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Non-college bound youth																
White																
High school dropout[1]	8.2	9.4	43.3	35.7	77.4	66.8	60.6	59.8	.76	.80	.60	.55	.87	.81	.79	.78
High school graduate[2]	9.8	11.0	70.0	60.3	89.6	88.8	77.9	77.4	.91	.93	.97	.93	1.01	1.08	1.02	1.00
Black																
High school dropout[1]	6.3	9.0	28.0	23.0	54.5	44.2	47.4	51.9	.58	.76	.39	.35	.62	.54	.62	.67
High school graduate[2]	7.4	9.6	49.7	31.9	75.4	67.2	57.2	68.2	.69	.81	.69	.49	.85	.81	.75	.88

[1]Completed less than 12 years of schooling as of survey date and had left school at least 10 months before survey date.

[2]Completed exactly 12 years of school and had left school at least 10 months before survey date.

Table 4

Percent of Young Mothers Currently Married
by Race and High School Completion Status, 1968 and 1979

	High School Completion Status	
	Dropout	Graduate
White		
1968	84.1	86.5
1979	76.3	70.4
Black		
1968	49.1	53.1
1979	18.9	36.3

SAMPLE: Women who have completed 12 or less years of school, had left school by at least ten months before survey, and had a first live birth by survey date.

Table 5

Household Structure by Race, Parent and High School Completion Status; 1979

	Black					White				
		H.S. Graduate		H.S. Dropout			H.S. Graduate		H.S. Dropout	
	Total	Mother	Not Mother	Mother	Not Mother	Total	Mother	Not Mother	Mother	Not Mother
Living with Spouse[1]	23.5	36.3	16.0	18.9	18.8	43.5	70.4	23.9	76.3	29.7
Living with Partner[1] of opposite sex	3.4	0.8	1.1	3.8	16.4	5.6	5.0	10.3	1.5	5.7
Living with Parents[2]	42.6	35.3	67.1	28.8	51.1	36.1	10.4	49.1	12.5	48.5
Living with other relatives[3]	28.1	24.8	14.5	44.9	13.8	13.5	12.9	13.4	9.7	14.9
Living with other adults[4]	0.2	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
No adults present	2.1	1.9	1.3	3.6	0.0	1.3	1.2	3.3	0.0	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sample size	349	106	91	116	36	1192	285	216	186	505

[1]Other realtives and nonrelatives can also be present

[2]No spouse or partner present

[3]No spouse, partner or parents present

[4]No adult relative or partner present

SAMPLE: See Table 2.

Table 6

Percent Receiving Selected Transfer Payments
by Race, Parent and High School Completion Status, 1979

	Black					White				
		H.S. Graduate		H.S. Dropout			H.S. Graduate		H.S. Dropout	
	Total	Mother	Not Mother	Mother	Not Mother	Total	Mother	Not Mother	Mother	Not Mother
A.F.D.C.	21.7	21.2	0.0	42.6	0.0	4.5	9.1	0.0	16.9	0.0
Food Stamps	28.4	32.1	5.3	47.7	5.1	7.3	13.3	0.7	24.3	3.7
Supplemental Security Income	16.6	17.7	2.7	29.3	0.0	3.4	9.3	0.5	7.6	1.5
Any of above	41.4	45.2	6.6	73.8	4.2	10.4	22.6	1.1	32.4	4.1
Sample Size	349	108	91	116	36	1192	186	505	285	216

SAMPLE: See Table 2.

Table 7

Labor Force and Employment Characteristics
by Race, Parent and High School Completion Status; 1968 and 1979

	1968					1979				
		Black		White			Black		White	
	Total	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	Total	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate
All Women										
Labor Force Participation Rate	58.2	49.1	74.8	37.6	67.8	71.5	42.1	77.1	57.8	80.0
Percent Employed	50.7	32.5	66.8	25.7	63.4	57.1	11.9	56.3	36.2	71.2
Unemployment Rate	12.9	33.8	10.7	31.3	6.5	20.1	70.8	26.8	37.4	11.0
Sample Size	1242	207	167	289	579	1541	152	197	501	691
Women with Children										
Labor Force Participation Rate	37.5	47.3	67.3	28.1	37.6	51.3	38.2	66.5	47.2	55.3
Percent Employed	29.9	30.2	58.7	18.2	34.6	32.6	7.5	40.7	26.2	44.7
Unemployment Rate	20.3	36.1	12.8	34.9	8.0	36.5	81.7	38.8	44.5	19.2
Sample Size	612	150	84	183	195	693	116	106	285	186
Women without Children										
Labor Force Participation Rate	75.6	54.2	82.8	53.5	83.4	83.8	56.6	89.8	69.8	88.1
Percent Employed	68.2	39.1	75.5	38.4	78.3	71.9	28.3	74.8	47.4	79.9
Unemployment Rate	9.8	27.9	8.8	28.2	6.2	14.1	50.0	16.7	32.1	9.3
Sample Size	630	57	83	106	384	848	36	91	216	505

SAMPLE: See Table 2.

Table 8

Percent Expecting to Work at Age 35
by Race, Parent and High School Completion Status; 1968 and 1979

	1968					1979				
		Black		White			Black		White	
	Total	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	Total	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate	H.S. Dropout	H.S. Graduate
Total Women	29.3	55.1	37.5	29.9	25.5	59.7	77.0	74.1	53.2	55.9
Women with Children	39.7	60.5	49.2	29.9	41.8	68.5	74.1	76.9	58.3	73.6
Women without Children	20.6	36.5	27.1	29.9	16.9	54.5	88.0	70.3	47.5	54.1
Sample size	1085	148	149	259	592	1445	143	192	454	656

SAMPLE: See Table 2.

The Center for Human Resource Research

The Center for Human Resource Research is a policy-oriented multidisciplinary research organization affiliated with the Faculty of Labor and Human Resources in the College of Administrative Science of The Ohio State University. Established in 1965, the Center is concerned with a wide range of contemporary problems associated with human resource development, conservation and use. Its more than thirty senior staff members have been drawn from the disciplines of economics, education, English, health sciences, industrial relations, management science, psychology, public administration, social work and sociology. This multidisciplinary team is supported by approximately seventy graduate research associates, full-time research assistants, computer programmers and other personnel.

The Center has acquired pre-eminence in the fields of labor market research and manpower planning. The National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience have been the responsibility of the Center since 1965, with continuing support from the United States Department of Labor. Staff have been called upon for population and human resource planning assistance throughout the world with major studies conducted in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Venezuela. At the request of the National Science Foundation, a review of the state of the art in human resource planning was conducted. In other studies the impact of labor and education policy on labor supply has been assessed and employment statistics collection methods have been evaluated. Senior personnel are also engaged in several other areas of research including collective bargaining and labor relations, evaluation and monitoring of the operation of government employment and training programs, and the projection of health education and facility needs.

The Center for Human Resource Research has received over two million dollars annually from government agencies and private foundations to support its research in recent years. Providing support have been the U.S. Departments of Labor, State, Defense, and Health, Education, and Welfare; Ohio's Health and Education Departments and Bureau of Employment Services; the Ohio cities of Columbus and Springfield; the Ohio AFL-CIO; the George Gund Foundation; the Rockefeller Foundation; and the Ford Foundation. The breadth of research interests may be seen by examining a few of the present projects.

The largest Center project is the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience. This project has involved repeated interviews over a fifteen-year period with four groups of the United States population: older men, middle-aged women, and young men and women. The data are collected for 20,000 individuals by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, and the Center is responsible for data analysis. To date dozens of research monographs and special reports on the NLS have been prepared by the staff. Responsibilities also include the preparation and distribution of data tapes for public use. Since 1979, an additional cohort of 13,000 young men and women between the ages of 14 and 21 has been followed. This cohort includes for the first time those serving in the armed forces at the time of the initial interview. Plans call for interviewing this youth cohort for at least five years. The Center also provides analysis and public use tapes for this cohort; field work is handled by The National Opinion Research Center.

The Quality of Work Life Project, another ongoing study, began in 1975 as an attempt to improve both the productivity and the meaningfulness of work for public employees in the cities of Springfield and Columbus. Today Center staff also serve as third party advisors and researchers exploring new techniques for attainment of management-worker cooperation and worker health in a number of central Ohio private sector industries.

The Center has also been active in manpower planning both in the U.S. and in the developing countries. A project for the Ohio Advisory Council for Vocational Education identified the highly fragmented institutions and agencies responsible for supplying vocational and technical training in Ohio. Subsequent projects for the Ohio Occupational Information Coordinating Committee have followed graduates of these programs. These data and information on occupational distributions of employers collected for the Occupational Employment Statistics Program are being integrated into a comprehensive planning model which will be accessible to trainees and employers and linked to a national network.

Another focus of research is industrial relations and collective bargaining. In a project for the U.S. Department of Labor, staff members are evaluating several current experiments for expedited grievance procedures, working with unions and management in a variety of industries. The procedural adequacies, safeguards for due process, cost and timing of the new procedure are being weighed against traditional arbitration techniques.

Senior staff also serve as consultants to many boards and commissions at the national and state level. Recent papers have been written for the Joint Economic Committee of Congress, The National Commission for Employment and Unemployment Statistics, The National Commission for Employment Policy, The White House Conference on the Family, The Ohio Department of Corrections, The Ohio Board of Regents, The Ohio Governor's Task Force on Health, and the Ohio Governor's Task Force on Welfare.

The Center maintains a working library of approximately 10,000 titles, including a wide range of reference works and current periodicals, as well as an extensive microfilm and microfiche collection. Through their facilities linked to the university computer, the Center's data processing staff provide statistical, technical, and programming support both for in-house researchers and the over 250 users of the National Longitudinal Surveys data tapes. They maintain the NLS tapes, data base, documentation and associated software.

For more information on specific Center activities or for a copy of the Publications List, write: Director, Center for Human Resource Research, 5701 North High Street, Worthington, Ohio 43085.